

Atmosphere engineering of metal-free Te/C₃N₄ p-n heterojunction for nearly 100% photocatalytic converting CO₂ to CO



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ABSTRACT

Carbon nitride (CN)-based heterojunction photocatalysts hold promise for efficient carbon dioxide (CO₂) reduction. However, suboptimal production yields and limited selectivity in CO₂ conversion pose significant barriers to achieving efficient CO₂ conversion. Here, we present the construction of a p-n heterojunction between ultrasmall Te NPs and CN nanosheet using a novel tandem hydrothermal-calcination synthesis strategy. Through ammonia-assisted calcination, ultrasmall Te NPs are grown in-situ on the CN nanosheets' surface, resulting in the generation of a robust p-n heterojunction. The synthesized heterojunction exhibits increased specific surface area, reinforced visible light absorption, intensive CO₂ adsorption capacity, and efficient charge transfer. The optimum Te/CN-NH₃ demonstrates superior photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity and durability, with nearly 100 % selectivity for CO and a yield as high as 92.0 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, a fourfold increase compared to pure CN. Experimental and theoretical calculations unravel that the strong built-in electric field of the Te/CN-NH₃ p-n heterojunction accelerates the migration of photogenerated electrons from Te NPs to the N site on CN nanosheets, thereby promoting CO₂ reduction. This study provides a promising material design approach for the construction of high-performance p-n heterojunction photocatalysts.

1. Introduction

Solar-driven carbon dioxide (CO₂) reduction has emerged as a pivotal strategy for converting CO₂ into high-value-added chemicals and fuels, addressing current global environmental and climate challenges [1–3]. Among the myriad photocatalysts investigated for this purpose, graphitic carbon nitride (CN) has garnered significant attention as a metal-free n-type organic semiconductor [4,5]. Its appeal lies in its responsiveness to visible light, remarkable chemical stability, intriguing electronic structure, environmental friendliness, and economic viability [6]. Nevertheless, the intrinsic limitations of pure CN photocatalysts, including inefficient separation of photogenerated carriers and a relatively small specific surface area, impede their full potential in CO₂ photoreduction [7,8]. Therefore, it is deep desirability to develop innovative strategies to surmount these bottlenecks.

In recent years, the exploration of CN-based heterojunctions has gained significant momentum, propelled by the pursuit of enhancing carrier separation efficiency and optimizing photocatalytic performance [9,10]. Among the various types of explored heterojunction architectures, the CN-based p-n heterojunction has emerged as a prominent candidate, distinguished by its inherent built-in electric field [11]. This attribute facilitates expedited charge transfer dynamics and mitigates the ultrafast electron-hole recombination phenomena observed on semiconductor surfaces [12], such as Cu₂O/CN [13], Co₃O₄/CN [14], CoWO₄/CN [15], CoFe₂O₄/CN [16], BiOI/CN [17], displaying excellent performance in the photocatalytic field. Nevertheless, despite these significant strides, extant CN-based p-n heterojunctions encounter challenges such as suboptimal production yields and limited production selectivity in CO₂ photoconverted progress, thereby posing a huge barrier to achieving efficient CO₂ conversion [18,19]. Tellurium (Te),

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recognized as a typical p-type semiconductor, demonstrates exceptional characteristics including rapid photoelectric response, pronounced light absorption, and notable carrier mobility, rendering it highly coveted across various applications [20,21]. In addition, Te exhibits remarkable CO₂ adsorption capabilities, rendering it particularly promising for integration into CO₂ reduction processes [22]. Therefore, there exists a compelling impetus to harness the synergistic interplay between Te and CN to engineer p-n heterojunctions aimed at addressing the current issues and maximizing their advantages in the domain of CO₂ reduction.

Herein, we present a novel tandem hydrothermal-calcination synthesis strategy for the fabrication of a p-n heterojunction between ultrasmall Te nanoparticles (NPs) and CN nanosheet, achieved through simple atmosphere modulation. Following ammonia-assisted calcination, ultrasmall Te NPs were grown in-situ on the CN nanosheets' surface, resulting in the construction of a robust p-n heterojunction. The synthesized heterojunction exhibited enhanced visible light absorption, intensive CO₂ adsorption capacity, and efficient charge separation, culminating in nearly 100 % selectivity for CO products in a gas-solid phase test system for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction, with impressive yields of up to 92.0 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹. The elucidation of the mechanism underlying directed interfacial charge transfer in the p-n heterojunction was facilitated through advanced characterization techniques, including Kelvin probe microscopy (KPFM) and electrostatic force microscopy (EFM). Furthermore, the dynamic behavior of the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction process was identified using in-situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS). To provide deeper insights into

the underlying mechanisms, density-functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed to further corroborating the experimental findings. Our study unveils a promising avenue for the synthesis of high-performance p-n heterojunctions, thus laying the groundwork for the development of innovative materials for sustainable energy applications.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Construction of Te/CN p-n heterojunction and characterization of morphology and structure

The synthesis of Te/CN p-n heterojunctions was accomplished using a novel tandem hydrothermal-calcination strategy under NH₃ atmosphere, as shown in Fig. 1a. Initially, telluric acid was introduced into a melamine matrix to form a supramolecular intermediate precursor during a hydrothermal reaction. The resultant intermediate precursor exhibited a hexagonal prism morphology (Fig. S1) [23], and its XRD pattern (Fig. S2) aligns closely with previously reported data. Subsequently, high calcination temperature was employed to induce the transformation of the intermediate precursors in an NH₃/N₂ environment, facilitating the in-situ growth of ultrasmall Te NPs on CN nanosheets, labelled as Te/CN-NH₃. During the high-temperature calcination process, the CN intermediates initially transform from rods into tubes. As the reaction progresses, these tubes further disintegrate into nanosheets, while telluric acid molecules continuously aggregate into Te NPs and grow on the CN nanosheets. Concurrently, NH₃ decomposes at 500 °C, resulting in

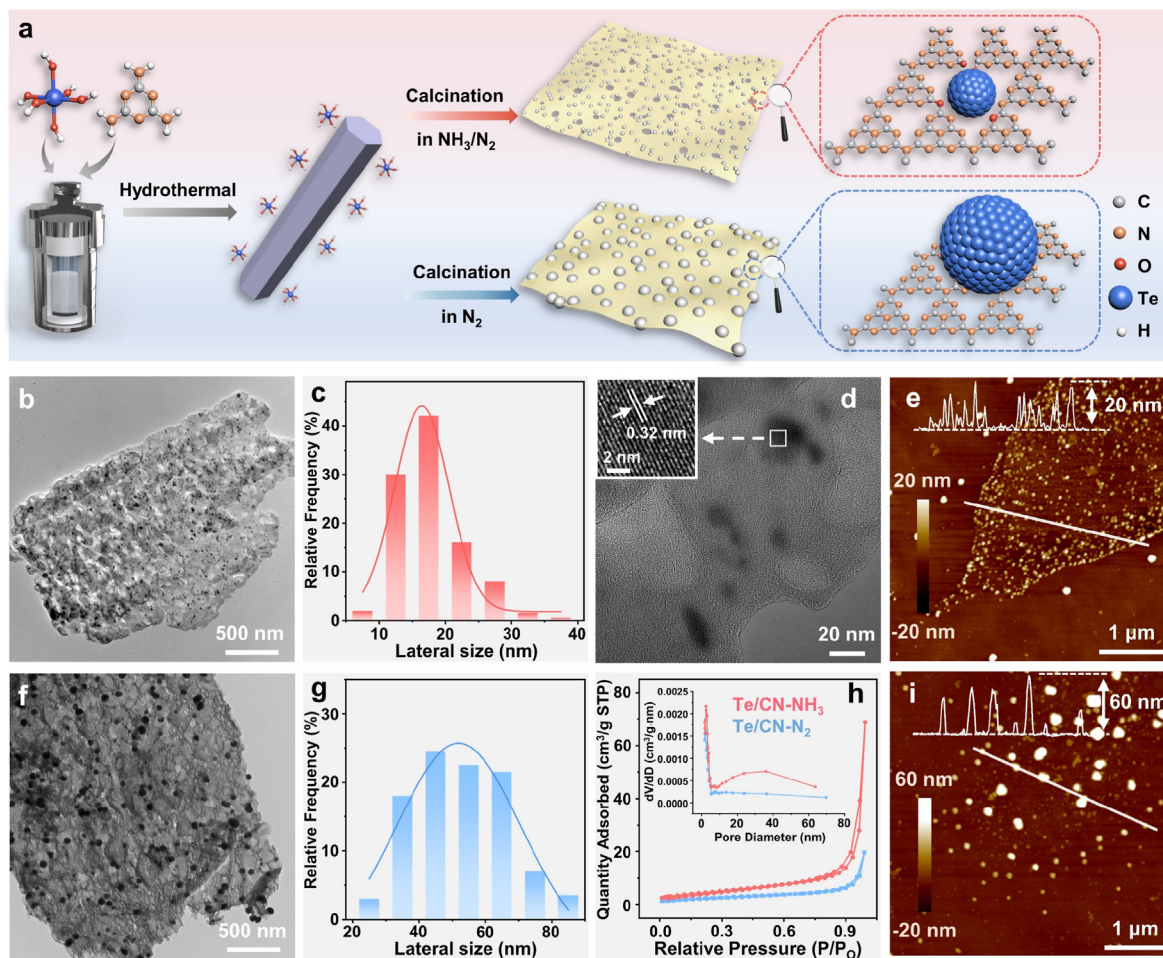


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic preparation process of Te/CN p-n heterojunction; (b-e) The TEM (b), particle size distribution (c), HRTEM (d), and AFM (e) images of Te/CN-NH₃; (f-g) The TEM (f) and particle size distribution (g) of Te/CN-N₂; (h) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms and corresponding pore size distribution profiles (the inset) of samples; (i) The AFM image of Te/CN-N₂.

the formation of micropores within the CN substrates, which in turn provide additional reactive sites [24]. Moreover, NH_3 played a pivotal role in the incorporation of N atoms into CN substrate, thereby facilitating the trapping of Te NPs within the microporous sites. For comparative analysis, Te/CN-N_2 was also prepared under an N_2 atmosphere.

The morphology and microstructure of the synthesized photocatalysts were observed using transmission electron microscopy (TEM). TEM images revealed the characteristic two-dimensional (2D) sheet-like morphology of pure CN (Fig. S3), while Te NPs were uniformly dispersed on CN nanosheets without noticeable agglomeration (Fig. 1b–f). Notably, the Te/CN-NH_3 composite presented a morphology characterized by CN nanosheets loaded with Te NPs, with the transparent spots indicating a porous feature. Meanwhile, the SEM image of the Te/CN-NH_3 composite reveals that the Te NPs are embedded within the CN nanosheets as opposed to being merely adhered onto their surface (Fig. S4). This configuration facilitates the formation of heterojunctions characterized by direct surface contact between the Te NPs and the CN nanosheets. Furthermore, the average size of Te NPs exhibited significant variation between samples calcined under different atmospheres. Particle size distribution analysis revealed that Te NPs calcined in an NH_3/N_2 atmosphere possessed an average size of about 18 nm (Fig. 1c), considerably smaller than those calcined under N_2 atmosphere, which exhibited an average size of about 52 nm (Fig. 1g). This observation suggests that

the presence of NH_3 inhibited the excessive growth of Te NPs during the calcination process. High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) analysis provided further insights into the porous nature of Te/CN-NH_3 with mesopore diameters ranging from 20 to 40 nm, attributed to the Te sublimation-induced porogenesis. This porous structure affords abundant active sites for immobilizing CO_2 molecules. Besides, the synthesized CN nanosheets are amorphous, and the obvious lattice stripes observed on Te/CN-NH_3 belong to Te NPs with a spacing of 0.32 nm (Fig. 1d), corresponding to the (101) plane of Te [20]. The homogeneous distribution of C, N, O, and Te elements throughout the Te/CN-NH_3 structure was detected using Energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) mapping (Fig. S5), further substantiating the successful integration of Te NPs with CN nanosheets.

Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface area and corresponding pore size distribution profiles were evaluated through nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms to explore the influence of the calcination atmosphere on the catalysts. As shown in Fig. 1h and Table S1, both Te/CN-NH_3 and Te/CN-N_2 exhibited typical type IV isotherms and type H3 hysteresis [25]. The specific BET surface area of the samples increased from $8.97 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (Te/CN-N_2) to $16.42 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (Te/CN-NH_3), attributed to the porogenesis induced by the NH_3 atmosphere. Pore size distribution analysis demonstrated that Te/CN-NH_3 exhibited a mesopore structure with mesopore size distribution at 25.91 nm, larger than that of Te/CN-N_2 (13.54 nm). Te/CN-NH_3 exhibits a larger surface area and more pores compared to Te/CN-N_2 , indicating that pyrolysis in an

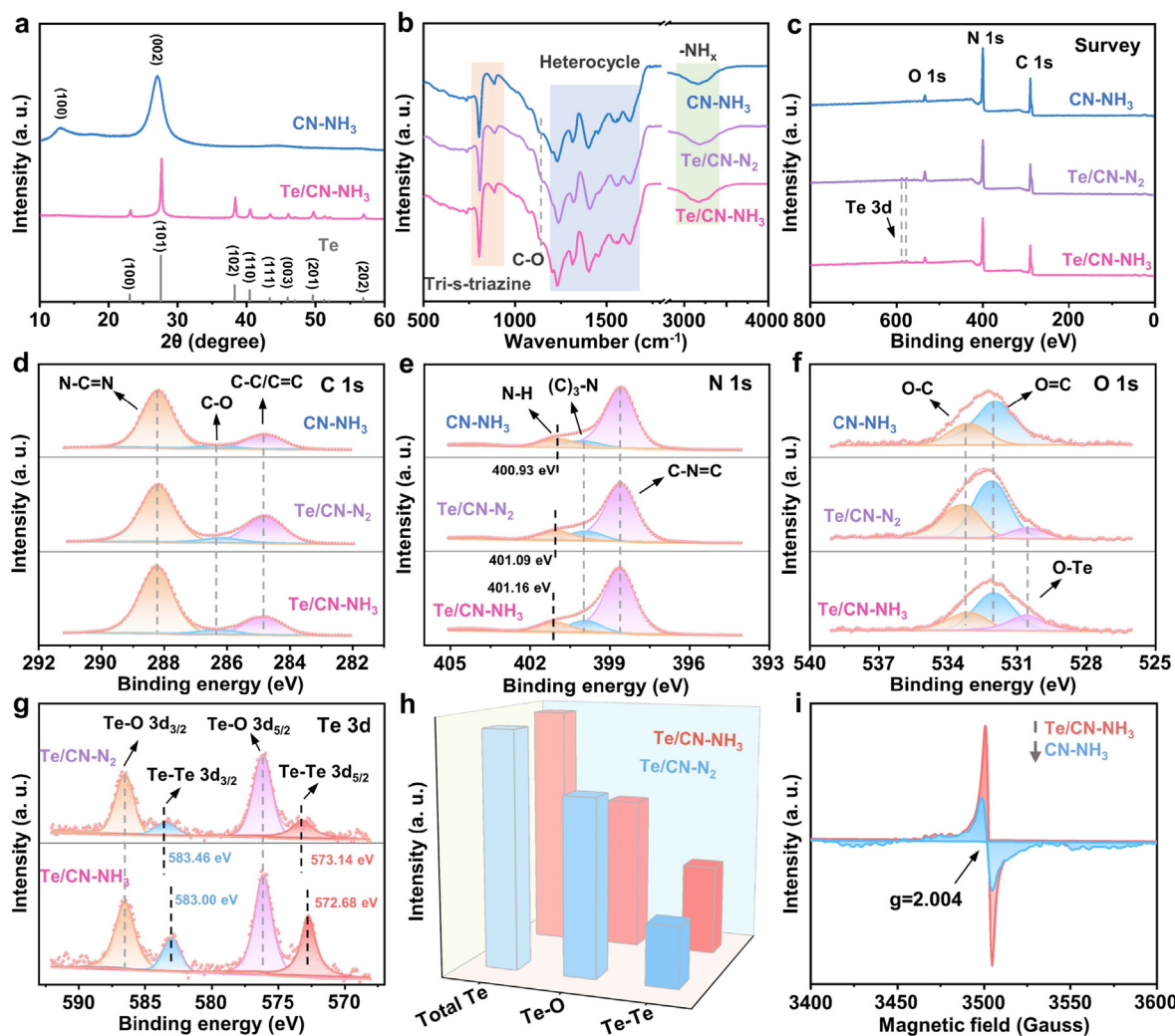


Fig. 2. (a) The XRD spectra of CN-NH_3 , Te/CN-NH_3 , and PDF standard card of Te; (b) The FT-IR spectra of CN-NH_3 , Te/CN-N_2 , and Te/CN-NH_3 ; (c–g) The XPS Survey (c), XPS C 1s (d), XPS N 1s (e), XPS O 1s (f), and XPS Te 3d (g) spectra of CN-NH_3 , Te/CN-N_2 and Te/CN-NH_3 ; (h) The amount of different Te in Te/CN-N_2 and Te/CN-NH_3 based on the XPS Te 3d spectra; (i) The EPR spectra of CN-NH_3 and Te/CN-NH_3 .

NH₃ atmosphere were conducive to form substantial mesoporous and exposed increased numbers of active sites [26]. Furthermore, atomic force microscope (AFM) images illustrated that the height of Te/CN-NH₃ (Fig. 1e) was lower than that of Te/CN-N₂ (Fig. 1i), with Te NPs evenly distributed on the CN nanosheets, consistent with TEM results. This observation reveals that the NH₃ atmosphere suppressed the stacking between CN layers, forming the ultra-thin CN structure during the calcination process. Thus, the unique Te NPs anchored on the surface of CN nanosheets might modulate the electronic structure of active centers and optimize catalytic behavior.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns exhibit the crystal structure of the samples (Fig. 2a). The diffraction pattern of CN-NH₃ displays two evident peaks at 12.9° and 27.2°, corresponding to the (100) and (002) crystal planes of CN, originating from the intra-planar stacking of the tri-s-triazine cells and the interfacial stacking of conjugated aryl groups, respectively [27]. The diffraction peaks of Te/CN-NH₃ corresponds to the standard card of Te, further affirming the successful synthesis of the Te/CN heterojunction [28]. However, the two diffraction peaks of CN were not clearly discernible due to their weak intensity relative to the diffraction peaks of Te. The lattice fringe of Te/CN-NH₃ was estimated to be 0.32 nm, consistent with HRTEM results.

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) and high-resolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was employed to elucidate the elemental composition and chemical state of as-prepared catalysts. As depicted in Fig. 2b, CN-NH₃, Te/CN-N₂, and Te/CN-NH₃ exhibited similar infrared spectra, featuring prominent absorptions at 810, 1200–1600, and 3000–3300 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the tri-s-triazine unit respiration vibration, stretching vibration of C-N heterocyclic ring, and stretching vibration of N-H, respectively [29]. Additionally, a weaker absorption at 1150 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the stretching vibration of C-O. The XPS survey spectra confirmed the existence of the elements C, N, and O in CN-NH₃ (Fig. 2c) and CN-N₂ (Fig. S6), with the presence of Te detected in the composites, affirming the combination of Te with CN successfully. Moreover, the N contents of the prepared samples were identified to be 45.08, 50.65, 50.52 and 51.94at.% for Te/CN-N₂, Te/CN-NH₃, CN-N₂, and CN-NH₃, respectively. The increasing contents of edge-type N could be attributed to the NH₃-assisted synthesis effects, facilitating the anchoring of small Te NPs at mesoporous edges due to sufficient anchoring sites for immobilizing Te NPs. Further insight is provided by the high-resolution spectra of C 1s, N 1s, O 1s and Te 3d (Fig. 2d–g). The high-resolution C 1s spectra exhibits peaks centered at 284.8 eV (C–C/C=C) and 288.2 eV (N–C=N), originating from the framework of the CN [30]. The high-resolution N 1s spectra could be deconvoluted into three peaks at 398.6, 399.9, and 400.93 eV, assigned to C–N=C, (C)₃-N, and N-H of the CN, respectively [31]. Notably, the introduction of Te NPs causes the N-H bonds to shift slightly towards higher binding energy, indicating a reduction in electron cloud density around the nitrogen atoms in CN due to the close interaction with Te NPs. This shift confirms the successful formation of a p-n heterojunction. Specifically, Te/CN-N₂ exhibits a positive shift of 0.16 eV, whereas Te/CN-NH₃ shows a more pronounced positive shift of 0.23 eV. This larger shift suggests that the heterojunction calcined in NH₃ is more robust, thereby enhancing the influence of Te NPs on the electron cloud density in CN.

The O element present in the samples derived from atmospheric oxygen and oxygen atoms in telluric acid. In addition to the observed peaks at 532.1 eV (O=C) and 533.1 eV (O–C) in the high-resolution O 1s spectra of the composites, a peak at 530.6 eV corresponding to O-Te bonds is evident [32]. The presence of O-Te bonds is attributed to the incomplete removal of oxygen from telluric acid during the calcination process, resulting in residual O-Te bonds. Additionally, Te may form bonds with oxygen atoms in the CN structure, as Te has a strong affinity for bonding with oxygen. Furthermore, the Te–O bonds are observed at 576.0 eV (Te 3d_{5/2}) and 586.5 eV (Te 3d_{3/2}) in the high-resolution Te 3d spectra [33]. Notably, the Te–Te bonds in Te/CN-NH₃ at 572.68 eV (Te 3d_{5/2}) and 583.00 eV (Te 3d_{3/2}) exhibit a negative shift of 0.46 eV

compared to those in Te/CN-N₂ (573.14 eV and 583.46 eV). This phenomenon indicates that the NH₃ calcination process changes the coordination microenvironment of Te, leading to an increase in the electron cloud density surrounding the Te NPs in Te/CN-NH₃ [32,34]. Moreover, the elemental content of Te in Te/CN-NH₃ is slightly higher than that in Te/CN-N₂ (Fig. 2h and Table S2) due to the decrease in O content and increase in N content under NH₃-assisted calcination condition. This results in a decrease in Te–O bonds and an increase in Te–Te bonds on the surface of Te/CN-NH₃.

The electronic properties of the materials were characterized by electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy (EPR). As shown in Fig. 2i, the EPR spectrum of CN-NH₃ displays a single Lorentzian line at $g = 2.004$, caused by π -conjugated electrons formed by lone pairs of electrons on the carbon atoms of the tri-s-triazine ring. After the introduction of Te NPs, the EPR signals of the composites were distinctly enhanced, indicating a tight interaction between Te NPs and CN, facilitating more efficient expansion of π - π conjugated delocalization. That is, the surface electrons of Te/CN-NH₃ are more abundant than those of CN-NH₃. The higher concentration of uncoupled electrons in Te/CN-NH₃ facilitates the photo-induced generation of reactive intermediates, thus enhancing the photocatalytic activity [35].

2.2. Evaluation of CO₂RR activity

The photocatalytic activity of the catalysts was assessed in the existence of only H₂O and CO₂ gas. As depicted in Fig. 3a and Fig. S7, CO emerges as the primary product. The average CO yield of CN-N₂ is 23.0 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, slightly lower than that of CN-NH₃ (32.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$). After introducing of Te NPs, the content of Te in the composites increased with the addition of telluric acid (Table S3), and the catalytic capability increased first and then decreased (Fig. S8), reaching its zenith when the ratio of telluric acid to melamine was 0.4:1. Meanwhile, the calcination temperature was optimized, with the superior properties observed when calcined at 500 °C. In the reduction test using high concentration CO₂, the average CO yield of Te/CN-NH₃ synthesized under optimal conditions reached 92.0 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, with nearly 100 % product selectivity, surpassing most reported CN-based and other p-n heterojunctions photocatalytic materials in similar testing environments (Table S4). The apparent quantum yield (AQY) of Te/CN-NH₃ stood at 0.01 % at $\lambda = 420$ nm. The highest catalytic activity of Te/CN-NH₃ indicates the advantages of the p-n heterojunction formed under NH₃ assisted calcination in facilitating prominent photoreduction.

To validate that CO was indeed generated from the CO₂ reduction reaction catalyzed by Te/CN-NH₃, a control-experiment was carried out by alternately omitting light, CO₂, and catalyst from the photocatalysis reaction [36]. The controlled experiment confirmed that no CO product was produced when any of the conditions of CO₂, light, and catalyst were not met, thereby verifying that CO and CH₄ were produced from the photoreduction of CO₂ by the catalyst. In addition, ¹³CO₂ isotope labeling experiments (Fig. 3b and Fig. S9) were implemented to elucidate the source of products. When utilizing ¹³CO₂ as the stock, mass spectroscopy revealed distinct signals for ¹³CO ($m/z=29$), which demonstrates that the product originated from CO₂ rather than the decomposition of the catalyst [37]. Furthermore, Te/CN-NH₃ exhibited stable catalytic performance over four cycle experiments (Fig. 3c). To investigate the reduction ability of the catalyst at low concentrations of CO₂, high purity CO₂ was diluted with N₂ to decrease the concentration, and the photoreduction test was carried out at different CO₂ concentrations [38]. Te/CN-NH₃ demonstrated good photoreduction performance even at low concentrations of CO₂ and in air (Fig. 3d).

The adsorption properties of Te/CN-NH₃ on the reaction substrate were investigated using CO₂-temperature programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD, Fig. 3e) and water contact angle measurement (Fig. S10). The results revealed that samples subjected to NH₃-assisted calcination exhibited stronger CO₂-TPD signals compared to those calcined in N₂, indicating that NH₃-assisted calcination enhanced the abundance of

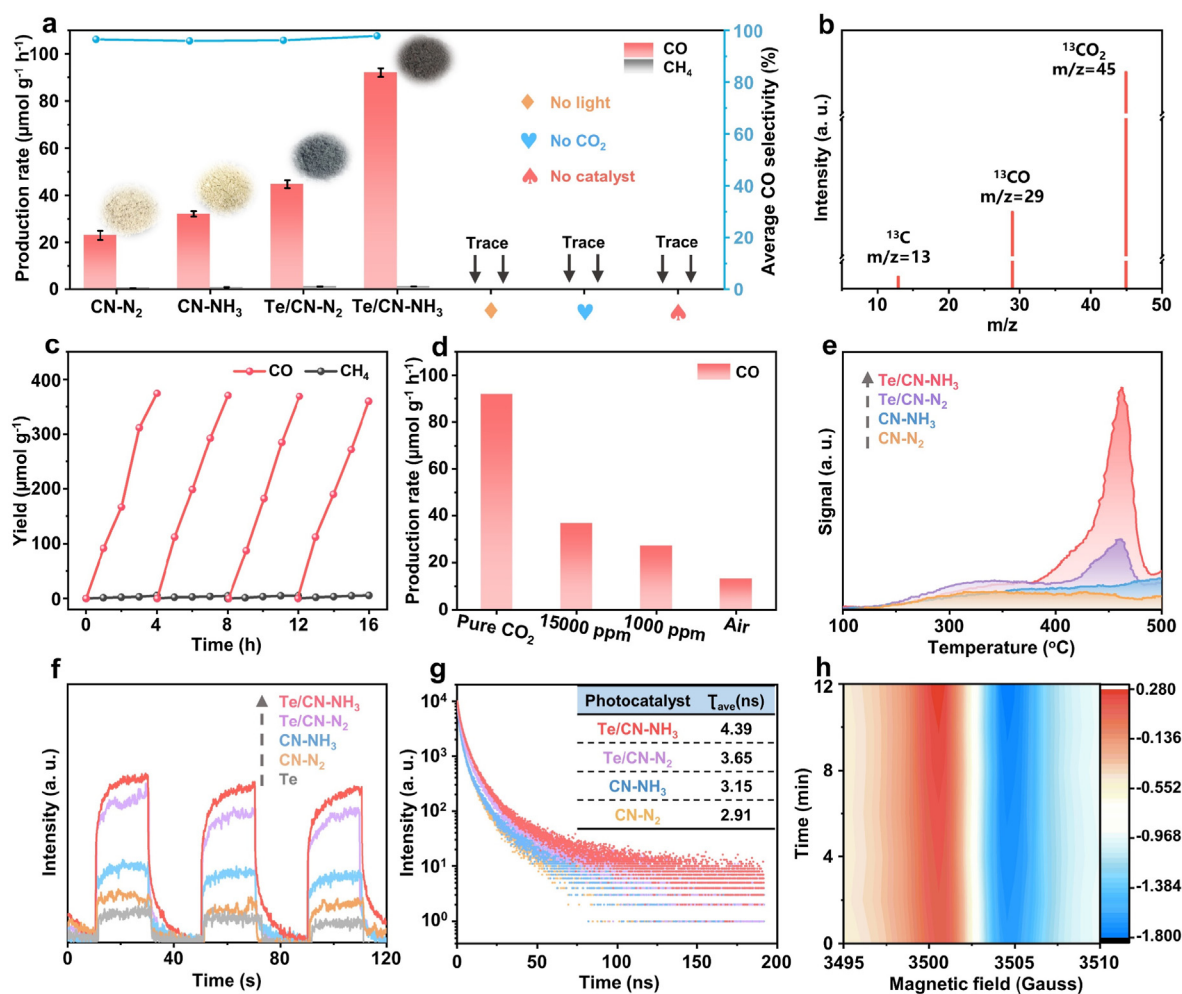


Fig. 3. (a) The photoreduction activities of the synthesized samples and control experiments in pure CO₂; (b) Mass spectrum of the products from the ¹³CO₂ photoreduction by Te/CN-NH₃; (c) Cycling experiments of CO₂RR in pure CO₂ of Te/CN-NH₃; (d) The photoreduction activities of Te/CN-NH₃ under different concentrations of CO₂; (e) CO₂-TPD profiles of the samples; (f) The photocurrent curves of the samples; (g) The time-resolved transient fluorescence spectra of the samples; (h) The *in-situ* EPR spectrum of Te/CN-NH₃.

alkaline sites on the sample surface [39,40]. Additionally, the introduction of Te NPs led to a significant enhancement in the CO₂-TPD signal due to strong CO₂ adsorption capabilities of Te. Te/CN-N₂ exhibits two CO₂-TPD signals located at 330 and 460 °C. Upon changing the synthesis atmosphere from N₂ to NH₃, Te/CN-NH₃ display a stronger intensity of CO₂-TPD signal peak at 460 °C compared to Te/CN-N₂, showing more effective chemisorption of CO₂. The water contact angle of Te/CN-NH₃ is about 21°, indicating good wettability [41]. Therefore, the synergistic effect of good hydrophilicity and excellent CO₂ chemical absorbability facilitates the robust CO₂ photoreduction activity of Te/CN-NH₃.

The transient photocurrent curve (I-t, Fig. 3f) evidences that the composite exhibits a higher photocurrent compared to pure CN, indicating superior charge separation efficiency [42]. NH₃-assisted calcination enhanced the photocurrent of the samples relative to those calcined under N₂ atmosphere, with Te/CN-NH₃ exhibiting the highest photocurrent density [43]. This highlighted the advantageous effect of NH₃-assisted calcination on charge transfer within the heterojunction. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS, Fig. S11) corroborates this observation. The minimum Nyquist radius of Te/CN-NH₃ indicates the least charge transfer resistance, and high-efficiency charge transfer between Te and CN [44,45]. In addition, the photoluminescence (PL, Fig. S12) spectra verified the effective charge separation of the sample. The weaker fluorescence intensity of Te/CN-NH₃ and Te/CN-N₂ compared to CN indicates that heterojunction formation effectively

inhibits carrier recombination [46]. Particularly noteworthy is that the fluorescence of Te/CN-NH₃ is weaker than that of Te/CN-N₂, suggesting that the NH₃-assisted calcination strategy provides an effective non-radiative decay pathway for the photogenerated carrier between Te and CN. The dynamic behavior of photo-induced carriers was further investigated by time-resolved transient fluorescence (Fig. 3g) spectroscopy. The results show that Te/CN-NH₃ exhibits the longest fluorescence lifetime, signifying the strongest charge separation [47]. *In-situ* EPR (Fig. 3h) was employed to analyze the charge density changes of Te/CN-NH₃ heterojunction after illumination. The EPR signal of Te/CN-NH₃ gradually increased with illumination, reaching stability at 10 min. This suggests that strong electron-hole pair separation occurs in the catalyst after photoexcitation, resulting in the gradual accumulation of unpaired electron concentration, which then maintained a dynamic equilibrium after reaching the maximum value [48]. These summaries consistently affirm that Te/CN-NH₃ demonstrates robust carrier separation capacities.

2.3. Strong built-in electric field formed by Te/CN p-n heterojunction

To probe the charge transfer dynamics between Te NPs and CN nanosheets, we conducted an in-depth analysis of the band structure using UV-vis diffuse reflection spectroscopy (DRS) and Mott-Schottky analysis. As depicted in Fig. S13, CN manifests significant light

absorption up to 460 nm, while Te NPs exhibits pronounced absorption across the visible light spectrum. After the formation of heterojunction, the composite materials exhibit substantially enhanced light absorption compared to pure CN. According to the converted Kubelka-Munk function, we determined the bandgaps of Te NPs and CN to be 2.50 and 2.62 eV, respectively. Mott-Schottky curve (Fig. S14) was employed to determine the conduction type and flat-band potential of the samples. Notably, Te NPs is confirmed as a p-type semiconductor indicated by the negative slope, while CN exhibits properties of an n-type semiconductor, as evidenced by the positive slope. The Mott-Schottky diagram of the Te/CN composites displays an inverted “V-shape”, a typical characteristic of p-n heterojunctions [49], confirming the successful construction of Te/CN p-n heterojunctions. The transverse intercept values of 0.43 eV and -0.55 eV (vs Ag/AgCl, pH=7) correspond to the flat-band potentials of Te NPs and CN, respectively. Further analysis of the band structure reveals the conduction and valence band potentials (CB/VB) of Te NPs and CN to be $-1.67/0.83$ eV and $-0.55/2.07$ eV, respectively (vs. NHE, pH=7). Notably, the CB potential of CN is more negative than that of CO_2/CO , while the VB potential of Te NPs is more positive than that of $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{O}_2$ [50]. From a thermodynamic point of view, these values verify that the synthesized sample possesses adequate redox capacity to

facilitate the reduction of CO_2 to CO and CH_4 , as well as the oxidation of H_2O to O_2 . Furthermore, the abundant microporous structure of the samples calcined under NH_3 exposes more reactive sites. This structural feature facilitates the CO_2 reduction at the CN terminals within the heterojunction, enhancing the overall reactivity and efficiency of the process.

To further investigate the charge transfer mechanism within Te/CN heterojunction, in-situ KPFM and EFM were employed to record the surface potential of the sample and detect the local charge change. Since the interfacial charge transfer process is closely related to the work function (WF), the WF can be calculated from the surface potential measured by KPFM. As depicted in Fig. S15b, the contact potential difference (CPD) between Te NPs and the probe is measured to be 37 mV. The WF_{Te} of Te NPs is determined to be 4.74 eV using the equation $\text{WF}(\text{eV}) = 4.7 \text{ eV} + e \times \text{CPD}$, where e is the electron charge and 4.7 eV is the work function of the corrected probe (SCM-PIT-V2) [51]. Similarly, the CPD_{CN} of CN is -23 mV (Fig. S15d), yielding a corresponding WF_{CN} of 4.68 eV. While the CPD_1 between Te/CN- NH_3 and the probe is 27 mV (Fig. 4a-c), it can be inferred that the WF_1 of Te/CN- NH_3 is 4.73 eV. After determining the WF, the Fermi energy level (EF) of Te/CN- NH_3 is significantly lower than that of CN, indicating that when Te NPs and CN

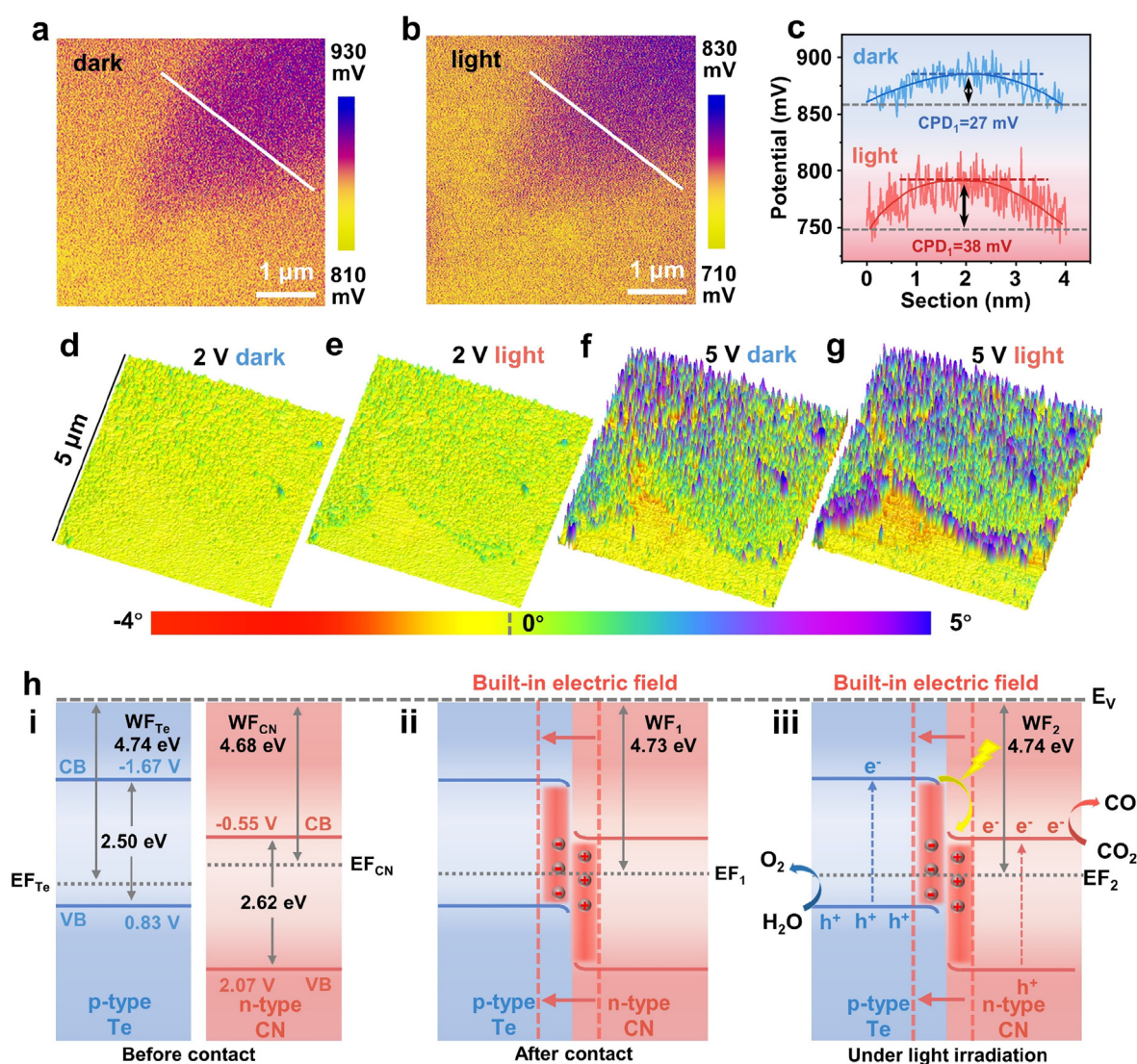


Fig. 4. (a–c) KPFM image of Te/CN- NH_3 (a) in dark, (b) under light irradiation, and (c) the corresponding liner scanning of CPD along the white lines; (d–g) 3D EFM images of Te/CN- NH_3 at sample bias of 2 V (d) in dark and (e) under light irradiation, and at sample bias of 5 V (f) in dark and (g) under light irradiation; (h) Schematic of the built-in electric field to facilitate efficient charge transfer process.

are in tight contact, electrons are spontaneously migrated from CN to Te NPs through the heterogeneous boundary [52,53]. The CPD between Te/CN-NH₃ and the probe under light irradiation (CPD₂=38 mV, Fig. 4b–c) is larger than that in the dark environment, indicating that Te NPs loses electrons under light irradiation and increases the surface potential. The built-in electric field drives photogenerated electrons from CB of Te NPs to that of CN, and photogenerated holes from VB of CN to that of Te NPs under illumination (Fig. 4h) [12]. Moreover, Te/CN-NH₃ exhibits a higher CPD to the probe than Te/CN-N₂ under both dark and light conditions (Figs. S15e–f, CPD₃=16 mV, CPD₄=20 mV), indicating that the enhanced charge transfer within the heterojunction facilitated by the NH₃-assisted calcination strategy [54,55].

To comprehensively understand the built-in electric field within the Te/CN heterojunction, it is imperative to evaluate its magnitude [56]. According to the method reported by Kanata et al. [57], the built-in electric field is mainly determined by the surface voltage (Vs) and the surface charge density (ρ), which are characterized via KPFM and transient photocurrent density measurement, respectively (Figs. S16 and S17). As shown in Fig. S18, the Te/CN-NH₃ heterostructure exhibits a notably heightened built-in electric field, exceeding that of Te/CN-N₂ by

a factor of 8.4 times. This built-in electric field would significantly promote the effective separation and transfer of interface charges.

For EFM measurements, sample bias of 2 V and 5 V is applied, equivalent to negative pressure applied to the probe. In the dark environment, the surface phase change of Te NPs is positive (Fig. 4d), indicating repulsion between Te NPs and the probe tip, while the phase change of CN nanosheets is negative, indicating attraction between CN and the probe tip [58]. This once again proves that due to the diffusion motion of carriers, the p region in the p-n junction presents a negative charge, and the n region presents a positive charge, forming an internal electric field directed by CN to Te NPs. When the sample bias increases from 2 V to 5 V, the amplitude of phase change increases (Fig. 4f), confirming the observed results [59]. Under light irradiation, the negative phase of CN and the positive phase of Te NPs tend to become smaller to a certain extent (Fig. 4e–g and Fig. S19), especially at the edge of the sample, where the difference is more obvious than in the dark. This confirmed that photo-induced electrons in the p region migrate to the n region and photo-induced holes in the n region migrate to the p region under the action of the built-in electric field, resulting in the accumulation of photogenerated electrons near the n region and photogenerated

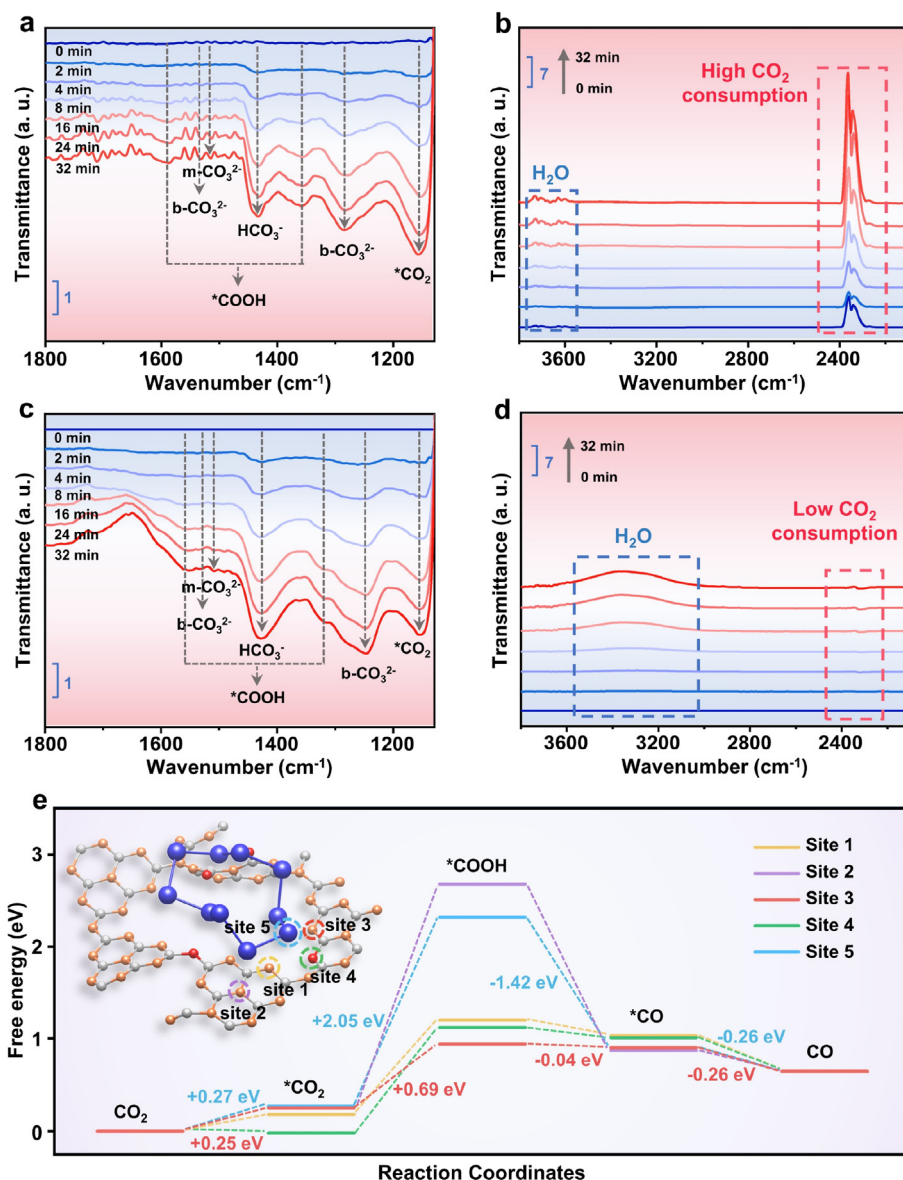


Fig. 5. (a-d) In-situ DRIFTS profiles for illumination processes of Te/CN-NH₃ (a, b) and CN-NH₃ (c, d); (e) Gibbs free energies of CO₂ photoreduction pathways by DFT calculations over possible active sites on the surface of Te/CN-NH₃.

holes near the p region [15].

2.4. Mechanism of photocatalytic reaction

To gain deeper insights into the reaction mechanism, *in-situ* DRITFS was performed to monitor the real-time formation of reaction intermediates during the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction process (Fig. 5a–d). Before light irradiation, the catalyst was revealed to a watery CO₂ gas flowing in the dark for 10 min to saturate the adsorption sites. The consumption and accumulation of different reactive species are represented positive and negative peaks in the infrared spectrogram, respectively. Notably, the peaks observed at 1355 and 1588 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the *COOH, a crucial intermediate in the conversion of CO₂ to CO or CH₄ [60], with intensity increasing over irradiation time. Additionally, intermediates such as *CO₂ (1150 cm⁻¹), b-CO₃²⁻ (1283 and 1530 cm⁻¹), m-CO₃²⁻ (1514 cm⁻¹) and HCO₃⁻ (1433 cm⁻¹) were identified [61–63]. And moreover, the peaks of H₂O (about 3600 cm⁻¹) and CO₂ (about 2360 cm⁻¹) are positive [64], illustrating the consumption of H₂O as a proton source and CO₂ as a feedstock in the photoreaction system. Both CN-NH₃ and Te-CN-NH₃ emerged similar infrared absorption patterns of key intermediates in the 1100–2000 cm⁻¹ range. Notably, Te-CN-NH₃ displayed a stronger *COOH peak intensity compared to CN-NH₃, indicating that Te-CN-NH₃ is more conducive to the conversion of CO₂ to CO. In addition, Te-CN-NH₃ exhibits higher CO₂ consumption, indicating that Te-CN-NH₃ is conducive to CO₂ photoreduction. These findings show the crucial role of the p-n heterojunction in promoting CO₂ conversion and *COOH production, thereby enhancing the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance of Te-CN-NH₃.

DFT calculations were employed to further elucidate the mechanism of CO₂ photoreduction within Te/CN heterojunctions, as well as the improved CO yield and selectivity. The calculated density of states (Fig. S20) shows that the 5p orbit of Te matches relatively well with the 2p orbit of N when Te NPs and CN are closely integrated, indicating strong interaction between Te NPs and N on CN [65]. The active site for CO₂ photoreduction on Te/CN-NH₃ was identified through the Gibbs free energy of the reaction (Fig. 5e). The conversion of CO₂* to COOH* emerges as the rate-determining step of CO₂ photoreduction [66]. Within the p-n heterojunction, the bridge nitrogen at CN (site 3) exhibits the lowest energy for COOH* generation, surpassing that of Te NPs (site 5), indicating that the optimal site for CO₂ reduction reaction is at N site of CN. The robust interaction between Te and N on CN facilitates the transfer of photogenerated electrons from Te to N on CN during CO₂ photoreduction, thereby promoting the reduction reaction and increasing CO production. In addition, the adsorption energy of CO at each site within the heterojunction (−0.06 to −0.13 eV) implies a favorable effect on enhancing the selectivity of CO during photocatalytic CO₂RR [67,68].

3. Conclusion

In summary, we engineered a p-n heterojunction by synthesizing ultrasmall Te NPs on CN nanosheets through a tandem hydrothermal-calcination approach, followed by ammonia-assisted calcination. This process yielded Te/CN-NH₃, featuring smaller Te NPs, larger surface area, and increased porosity compared to Te/CN-N₂. Notably, Te/CN-NH₃ exhibited enhanced light absorption and redox capacity for CO₂ reduction and H₂O oxidation. The optimized Te/CN-NH₃ catalyst demonstrated remarkable photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance, achieving nearly 100% selectivity for CO with a yield of 92.0 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, a fourfold increase over pure CN. Furthermore, Te/CN-NH₃ showed superior performance even under low CO₂ concentrations and in air. Various characterization techniques confirmed its robust carrier separation capabilities, corroborated by *in-situ* KPFM and EFM, which revealed enhanced charge transfer within the heterojunction facilitated by NH₃-assisted calcination strategy. DFT calculations identified the bridge nitrogen at CN as the active site for CO₂ photoreduction on Te/CN-NH₃,

with strong Te-N interactions promoting electron transfer during CO₂ reduction. Moreover, *in-situ* DRITFS indicated Te-CN-NH₃'s superior suitability for CO₂ conversion to CO compared to CN-NH₃, highlighting its potential for practical applications. This work contributes valuable insights into designing efficient p-n heterojunction photocatalysts for practical application.

4. Experimental

4.1. Materials

Chemicals: Melamine (99%, Adamas), Telluric acid (98%, Adamas), Tellurium (99%+, 100 mesh, Adamas), Ethanol (99 %+, Greagent).

4.2. Synthesis of Te/CN heterojunction

The 1.0 g of melamine and 0.4 g of telluric acid were added to 50 mL of DI water and dispersed under ultrasonication for 1 h. The obtained homogeneous solution was then transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave reactor, and was heated at 180 °C for 10 h. Afterward, the reactor was cooled down to room temperature, the resulting solution was subjected to centrifugation twice with DI water and once with ethanol remove impurities, and then dried in an oven at 60 °C. Subsequently, the obtained white powder was loaded into a crucible and put into a tube furnace, and then 5 % NH₃/N₂ gas was passed into the tube furnace, and the temperature was raised to 500 °C for calcination for 4 h at a heating rate of 2.5 °C min⁻¹. Finally, a gray powder was obtained after milling, which was named Te/CN-NH₃. In the same step, the calcination atmosphere was changed to N₂, and the obtained sample was named Te/CN-N₂. The selection of experimental conditions includes the addition amount of telluric acid (including 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8 g) and the calcination temperature (including 450, 480, 500, 520, 550, 580, 600 °C).

4.3. Synthesis of CN nanosheets

Similar to the synthesis procedure of Te/CN heterojunction, except that the precursor did not contain telluric acid, and the samples obtained by calcination in 5% NH₃/N₂ and N₂ atmosphere are pale yellow powder after grinding, which named CN-NH₃ and CN-N₂ respectively.

4.4. Synthesis of Te NPs

The crucible with 1.0 g tellurium powder was placed in a tubular furnace, and calcined at 500 °C for 4 h in 5 % NH₃/N₂ gas at a heating rate of 2.5 °C min⁻¹, and then ground into fine powder.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Huange Liao: Writing – original draft, Investigation. **Kai Huang:** Writing – original draft, Data curation. **Weidong Hou:** Investigation. **Huazhang Guo:** Investigation. **Cheng Lian:** Investigation. **Jiye Zhang:** Investigation. **Zheng Liu:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Liang Wang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix B. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmate.2024.100243>.

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